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CONSIDERATION OF REPORTS SUBMITTED BY STATES PARTIES UNDER ARTICLE 18 OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

Second and third periodic reports of States parties

The Republic of Iraq*

* For the initial report submitted by the Republic of Iraq, see CEDAW/C/5/Add.66/Rev.1; for its consideration by the Committee, see CEDAW/C/SR.212, CEDAW/C/SR.213 and CEDAW/C/SR.216 and Official Records of the General Assembly, Forth-eighth Session, Supplement No. 38 (A/48/38), paras. 33-86.

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SECOND AND THIRD PERIODIC REPORTS OF IRAQ ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

(August 1998)

INTRODUCTION

Iraq ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women by Law 66/1986 of 28 June 1986. Its initial report (CEDAW/C/5/Add.66/Rev.1), on the implementation of the Convention from its ratification to the end of 1989, outlined the measures taken by Iraq to eliminate all forms of discrimination between men and women in all social, economic, cultural and civil fields. It was discussed by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women at its sixteenth session during its 212th , 213th and 216th meetings, held on 20 and 22 January 1993.

It is difficult to speak of a country's implementation of the Convention in isolation from the circumstances in which that country finds itself. As is well known, an embargo was imposed on Iraq eight years ago and the country continues to be the object of most heinous crimes that have affected all segments of society, including women. Many reports, emanating from impartial international humanitarian agencies, have indicated the magnitude of the impact the embargo has had on all classes of the Iraqi people. Many have characterized it as genocide, which has been outlawed by a whole range of international covenants including, merely by way of example, the 1948 Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide.

The Government of Iraq has nevertheless endeavoured to take numerous steps for the advancement of Iraqi women, the most recent of which has been the adoption of a national strategy for that purpose and the formation of the High-level National Committee for the Advancement of Iraqi Women under the chairmanship of the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs and with the participation of the under-secretaries at a number of other relevant ministries and of the General Federation of Iraqi Women.

The present report was prepared in accordance with the guidelines for the preparation of reports by States parties issued by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women at its sixteenth session, held from 13 to 31 January 1997 (CEDAW/C/7/Rev.3). The questions raised and comments made during the Committee's discussion of Iraq's initial report were also taken into account. The Government of Iraq is continuing its endeavours to maintain equality between the sexes, to strengthen the role of women in society and to contribute to international efforts to those ends.

PART I

Article 1

For the purposes of the present Convention, the term "discrimination against women" shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

Throughout history, women in Iraq have been accorded special consideration with a view to strengthening their role in society, safeguarding their dignity and protecting their rights. From the time of mankind's first laws and legal codes, Iraq has shown concern for women, providing them with legal protection against the derogation of their rights and the debasement of their value as human beings. This is embodied in those provisions of the Code of Hammurabi that affirm the full legal capacity of women. The Code contains provisions to protect the wife and safeguard her financial and human rights, and it affirms the rights of daughters with respect to the estate of their parents. It affirms the right of women to have financial responsibility that is independent of that of their husbands, and it accords them the right to own property, to engage in trade, to make contracts, to have free disposal of their financial assets and to hold high office.

Islamic law, in turn, establishes equality of social rights between men and women and accords women rights with respect to independent political participation. Thus Almighty God commands his Prophet to take the oath of allegiance from women independently of men, and the Islamic Shariah makes men and women equal with respect to the dissolution of marriage and the right to study. It accords women complete independence in respect of rights, the right to own property in its widest sense and the right to have free disposal of their assets.

The Republic of Iraq in situated in South-West Asia, and it is bordered by Turkey in the north, Iran in the east, the Syrian Arab Republic, Jordan and Saudi Arabia in the west and the Arabian Gulf, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia in the south. It covers an area of 435,052 square kilometres. According to the 1997 census, its population is 22,017,983, of whom 10,940,764 are males and 11,077,219 are females, so that females account for 50.3 per cent. In 1988, the population was estimated to be 17,250,000, of whom 8,864,000 were males and 8,386,000 were females, so that females then accounted for 48.6 per cent.

One half of Iraq's inhabitants are thus females. Discrimination against women is not in the interests of social development and impedes the implementation of development plans. The elimination of discrimination against women is therefore a fundamental task and will require the concerted efforts of all, a political will that is informed and aware of the dimensions of the issue and the elaboration of relevant, professionally compenent and realistic plans. It is this that will be addressed in detail in the present report.

The peremptory constitutional norm relevant to the elimination of discrimination against women is that embodied in article 19 of the Constitution promulgated on 16 July 1970, which reads as follows:

"(a) Citizens are equal before the law without discrimination on grounds of sex, race, language, social origin or religion.

"(b) Equal opportunities for all citizens shall be guaranteed within the limits of the law."

Law 191/1975 makes men and women equal in respect of financial rights and privileges, and the Law for the Reform of the Legal System (35/1977) had the purpose of replacing laws and enactments in effect in such a way as to create a new society based on equality. The particulars on this were presented in Iraq's initial report.

Article 2

States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

(a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realisation of this principle;

(b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;

(c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;

(d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;

(e) To take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organisation or enterprise;

(f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;

(g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.

There is nothing to add to the information provided in Iraq's initial report. We refer in this context to Iraq's ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child by its Law 3/1994 and to the fact that it deposited its instrument of ratification with the Secretary-General of the United Nations on 15 June 1994. In accordance with the Secretary-General's note No. 1994/235, of 6 September 1994, it entered into force for Iraq on 15 July 1994.

Article 3

States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.

The agency concerned with the advancement of women was linked with the supreme executive authority in Iraq with effect from 4 June 1997. That agency is the High-level National Committee for the Advancement of Iraqi Women, which

was created by the adoption of the National Strategy for the Advancement of Iraqi Women in accordance with the decisions of the 1995 Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women. It consists of representatives of the many ministries involved in activities of relevance to women and of the General Federation of Iraqi Women, a non-governmental organization, and it promotes cooperation and coordination in implementing the goals of the Strategy, as exemplified hereunder.

1. Substantive considerations

(a) The objectives, procedures and implementation mechanisms of the National Strategy for the Advancement of Iraqi Women are based on the provisions of the Iraqi Constitution, the norms of Islamic law, the cultural heritage, the values of Arab Islamic society and the principles of human rights.

(b) The role and status of women are a reflection of the state of development of a society. This requires support for the advancement of women, the enhancement of their capabilities in the community context and the elimination of manifestations of discrimination against them.

(c) The Strategy seeks to address the inhumane consequences of the blanket embargo that has been maintained against Iraq since 1990, which have had a particularly adverse impact on women and at the personal and academic levels.

(d) The Strategy focuses on addressing women's issues by striking a balance between rights and duties and stressing the complementarity of roles among the different elements of the community and the cohesion of the family as the basic unit of society.

(e) The Strategy is integrated with the social, economic, political and cultural dimensions of the overall development plan and is based on engagement with the relevant regional and international strategies while taking account of Iraq's special national and cultural characteristics.

2. Operational considerations

The Strategy was formulated with reference to issues in the following fields:

(a) Political, including: women in positions of authority and decision-making positions; and women and the armed struggle;

(b) Economic, including: women and the economy; and the burden of permanent poverty;

(c) Cultural and social, including: human rights and the elimination of violence against women; education and training for women; women and health; women and the home; and women and the information media.

The other institution concerned with women's rights is the General Federation of Iraqi Women, established by Law 139/1972. In accordance with this Law, the Federation is a public-interest institution that is a legal entity having full legal capacity and enjoying administrative and financial independence. It is a mass, democratic organization representing all the women of Iraq without discrimination.

The Federation seeks to achieve objectives in the national, inter-Arab and international domains, and details of those objectives were given in Iraq's initial report. It has made frequent contributions to international conferences on women, and this topic will be addressed below in connection with article 8 of the Convention.

The Federation also publishes literature and studies as well as the magazine Al-Mar'ah ("Woman"), which deals with women's issues in all fields. It has been appearing since 1969, and its 255th issue had appeared by the time the present report was prepared. Because of the conditions created by the embargo, however, it has begun to appear only on such occasions as women's festivals.

Concurrently, the Federation engages in information programmes reflecting its objectives and programmes. They include:

The women's page in the newspaper Al-Qadisiyah, which focuses on topics of concern to women in today's society;

"Ma'ki" ("With You"), a daily radio programme that discusses issues of interest to women, girls and children;

"Ishtar", a weekly radio programme focusing on the educational interests of women;

"Afaq al-Mar'ah" ("Women's Horizons"), a programme on Iraq Television;

"Shams al-Afiyah" ("Sun of Health"), a daily radio programme for women and families.

The Federation also participates extensively with ministries and government departments in such activities as health education, in programmes implemented by the Ministry of Health, and in surveys. It organizes meetings with women to acquaint them with their rights and duties and with the laws and enactments that guarantee their human dignity. The Federation has interested itself in women's participation in employment, and in 1997 it contributed to the hiring of 1,103 women. It has offered many courses and seminars for the training of women.

There is also a General Federation of Farmers' Associations and a Family Planning Association.

Article 4

1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women shall not be considered discrimination as defined in the present Convention, but shall in no way entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.

2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity shall not be considered discriminatory.

There are no special measures aimed at accelerating the elimination of discrimination between men and women. The relevant measures are permanent and are adopted in accordance with established legislative procedures. The Strategy previously referred to has the purpose of ensuring the implementation of the annual plans for the advancement of women.

Article 5

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures:

(a) To modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women,

with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women;

(b) To ensure that family education includes a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and the recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, it being understood that the interest of the children is the primordial consideration in all cases.

The social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women cannot be modified by means of legislation or by administrative measures taken for this purpose but only through an understanding of the role of women and of their importance in all areas and at all levels.

In modern Iraq, women have achieved great progress with regard to their large-scale entry into all fields of employment and of political life. This has been especially so since the Glorious Revolution of 17 to 30 July 1968 accorded women special significance and affirmed the importance of their role in building an integrated society by opening to them every prospect for progress and development, thus ensuring their full rights and meeting the requirements of the social, economic, cultural and political developments under way in accordance with the humanitarian concepts and values on which Iraqi society is based.

Owing to the support and encouragement given to women by the President and Leader, Mr. Saddam Hussein (May God keep and preserve him), and because of his faith in the importance of their role in society and his affirmation of their human value as equal to that of men, women have begun to occupy more important positions in practical life in all economic, social and political fields and there has been a notable increase in the numbers of women in all areas of public life as well as in senior posts. Women in Iraq have every possible opportunity to develop their academic, cultural and personal capacities and to equip themselves to rise to the highest offices and posts and secure for themselves an active role in Iraqi society. Working women are granted paid maternity leave of one year and may obtain further leave to care for their children, and they are entitled to one hour a day to nurse their infants while at work. Day-care centres and kindergartens are available in all residential areas and places of work, and special medical and mother-and-child care services are to be found even in remote areas. The concern for women shown by the President and Leader, Mr. Saddam Hussein (May God keep and preserve him), has also found expression in the support he has given to the General Federation of Iraqi Women as a national non-governmental organization and advisory body on women's issues.

The concern of the Glorious Revolution of 17 to 30 July 1968 for the development of women has had its counterpart in the results of the international women's conferences held since 1975. Iraqi women took an active part in these conferences, and Iraq has taken important international initiatives. We refer in particular to the Conference on the role of women in the development of the non-aligned countries and the other developing countries, held in Baghdad from 6 to 13 May 1979, whose programme of action was endorsed by the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (the second world conference on women), held in Copenhagen in 1980, and to the Baghdad international seminar on human rights of 1994, as well as to Iraq's contributions to other relevant regional and international meetings.

The challenges with which Iraq has been confronted have, however, severely affected the advancement of Iraqi women. They are exemplified in the eight-year Iranian aggression against Iraq from 1980 to 1988 and the 30-Power aggression of January 1991 in which all types of weapons were used, even those

that are internationally prohibited.

Over and above the physical destruction and human suffering caused by the military operations, which increased the burdens of Iraqi women and left a psychological, physical and social imprint on them, the perpetuation of the plight caused by the comprehensive embargo imposed on Iraq in 1990 has brought about a major diminution in the role of women and in their contributions to public life and has undermined their achievements and the progress they had made in academic, occupational, social and economic terms. This is incompatible with the resolutions adopted by the world conferences on women, which have stressed the commitment of the international community to improving the situation of women and enhancing their academic, occupational and social standing. The difficult economic conditions created by the comprehensive embargo have also forced large numbers of Iraqi women to abandon the academic life and devote themselves to domestic work in order to cope with the ever greater burdens of daily life and secure the daily requirements of the family and, in particular, of the children.

The adverse impact on women's physical and mental health of the embargo being maintained against Iraq is abundantly clear from the daily suffering caused by the shortage of food and medicine and the lack of the humanitarian supplies needed by families and by women in particular. At a press conference in Geneva in March 1996, the Assistant Regional Director of the World Health Organization Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean said that the health situation in Iraq had been set back 50 years. This has also been confirmed by the reports of other United Nations specialized agencies and of the humanitarian organizations that have visited Iraq.

The adverse consequences of the maintenance of the comprehensive embargo against Iraq have drawn the attention of the international community to the serious character of this measure. In his report entitled "Supplement to An Agenda for Peace", the Secretary-General of the United Nations refers to the ethical and legal aspects of the imposition of sanctions and to the fact that they may conflict with the objectives of the Organization. He also speaks of the need to take measures to limit the adverse humanitarian effects of sanctions on vulnerable groups. The 1995 Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women also called for measures to be taken in accordance with international law to mitigate the impact of such consequences on women and children.

Article 6

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution of women.

Iraq has acceded to the Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others, approved by the United Nations General Assembly on 2 December 1949, and it entered into force for Iraq on 22 December 1955. Pursuant to the Convention, prostitution was prohibited by Law 54/1958.

After the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women had entered into force, a new law was enacted to combat prostitution and procurement. Article 3 of this law establishes a penalty of imprisonment for a period of not more than seven years for whoever engages in procurement or uses premises for that purpose; article 4 provides that a woman who is proved to have engaged in prostitution shall be confined to a reformatory of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; article 5 establishes for whoever forcibly detains a person, male or female, for purposes of prostitution or sodomy a penalty of 10 years in prison where the victim is over the age of 18 and not more than 15 years where the victim is

under 18 as well as court-awarded compensation for the victim in either case; and article 9 stipulates that the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs shall establish in the locations it deems necessary a sufficient number of reformatories for the guidance and reform of prostitutes by means of programmes for their behavioural, cultural and occupational rehabilitation with a view to enabling them to make an honest living, and it requires the Ministry to designate a special section in the department for the reform of adults and juveniles to house males convicted of prostitution.

Ordinance 4/1991, the Ordinance for the Reform of Women in Detention, was issued pursuant to the law in question. It establishes the manner in which reformatories will be operated with regard to such matters as education, vocational instruction, food, clothing and the wages to be paid to detainees for assigned work. The purpose is to correct the behaviour of detainees, rehabilitate them in social, occupational and educational terms and provide them with appropriate employment on completing their term of detention.

PART II

Article 7

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right:

(a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies;

Despite the circumstances in which the country finds itself because of the embargo that has been maintained against it for more than eight years, the political rights of Iraqi women have not been affected and they continue to participate in all elections and referenda and in the formulation and implementation of government policy. Any diminution in the role of women is due to the embargo and to their preoccupation with shouldering the burdens of the household. There are no special political parties for women.

(b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government;

Women continue to participate in the formulation and implementation of policy, to hold public office in all Iraqi government ministries and official institutions and to occupy a significant number of posts in government departments. Table 1 shows the numbers of male and female civil servants in Iraq and the percentage of women in the total number. Women also participate in the Iraqi parliament, and there are 17 women members who play a role alongside men in the deliberations of the National Assembly and in the decisions it adopts.

(c) To participate in non-governmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.

Iraqi women participate on equal terms with men in non-governmental organizations and associations and in trade unions. In 1997, for example: some 2,000 of the 9,200 lawyers enrolled in the Iraqi Bar Association, or 21 per cent, were women; 25,000 of the 29,379 teachers in the Iraqi Teachers Union, or 65 per cent, were women; 200,000 of the 1.1 million workers in the General Confederation of Labour Unions, or 20 per cent, were women; and 47 per cent of all women in Iraq belonged to the General Federation of Iraqi Women and the number of members in the 15-to-49 age group in 1997 was 1,110,182.

Article 8

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure to women, on equal terms with men and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organisations.

The Government of Iraq has endeavoured to include women in its representation at formal sessions of conferences and international meetings. A large number of women from all Iraqi ministries and official institutions participated in many of the international conferences held in various countries of the world prior to August 1990. The circumstances created by the embargo that has been maintained against Iraq since that time and the shortfall it has caused in the country's financial resources have brought about a corresponding reduction in the participation of women and, indeed, of men in such international conferences.

The General Federation of Iraqi Women, as previously stated, was established by Law 139/1972 as a mass, democratic, non-governmental organization representing the women of Iraq without distinction as to race, language, social origin or religion. In the circumstances created by the embargo imposed on Iraq, it has been almost the only body of its kind to participate in events at the international level in recent years. It has has thus taken part in the following international forums:

The 1995 Beijing Conference, where it presented 14 studies and papers on numerous topics relating to women, including: women and peace and development; women in Iraq under the embargo; the damage done to the environment in Iraq; violence against women; and the National Strategy for the Advancement of Iraqi Women to the Year 2005;

A 1995 regional seminar on the development of leadership skills, negotiating strategies and coordination with Arab official delegations;

The first regional consultation, held in Amman in 1996;

The 1996 Madrid conference on lifting the embargo against Iraq;

The fourth Asian conference on the exploitation and oppression of children, held in India in 1997;

The general Arab feminist encounter, held in Libya in 1997;

The second congress of peoples of the United Nations, held in Italy in 1997.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during marriage shall automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband.

2. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children.

The Iraqi Nationality Law (43/1961), is based on a number of general principles. The most important is that the members of a family should all have the same nationality and that none should have dual nationality or lose their nationality. This is because of the consequences of such a situation

for family unity and family rights and obligations. Iraq's reservations as to both paragraphs of article 9 of the Convention stem from its desire to avoid prejudicing family unity and shared interests.

Article 12 of the law provides that:

1. A foreign woman who marries an Iraqi man acquires Iraqi nationality from the date approval is given by the Minister of the Interior. She may renounce it within three years of the death of her husband or her repudiation or the dissolution of the marriage. She forfeits her Iraqi nationality as of the date of her application to renounce it.

The Minister of the Interior may exempt her from the residence requirements where the legal conditions are met for the acquisition of Iraqi nationality by birth.

2. Where a woman has forfeited her Iraqi nationality by acquiring the nationality of her foreign husband she may re-acquire Iraqi nationality if her foreign husband is granted Iraqi nationality or if she marries a person having Iraqi nationality. Such nationality is restored to her as of the date she submits the relevant application.

Article 13 of the law provides that:

1. When a foreign national acquires Iraqi nationality, his minor children also become Iraqi citizens.

2. When an Iraqi father forfeits Iraqi nationality, so do his minor children.

A minor whose Iraqi nationality lapses under this provision may re-acquire it by submitting an application to do so while present in Iraq within one year of attaining his majority.

PART III

Article 10

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;

The laws, regulations and ordinances relating to education in Iraq do not discriminate between men and women but observe the principle of equality from kindergarten up to post-graduate university studies. The Compulsory Education Law (118/1976) states that education is compulsory and free of charge for children of both sexes from 6 to 10 years of age, up to the end of the elementary stage. Girls are free to leave school thereafter with the approval of their parents or guardians. The State does not discriminate between the sexes in its policy with respect to admission to the various branches and special fields of higher education or with regard to advanced studies, opportunities for study abroad or academic fellowships.

1. Kindergartens

The percentage share of girls in kindergarten enrolment was 47.7 in 1988 and rose to 48.7 in 1997 (see table 2).

2. Elementary schools

The percentage of girls among elementary-school pupils was 44.2 in the 1988/89 school year, and this level was maintained almost unchanged in the subsequent years up to 1997 (see table 3). Eighty per cent of elementary schools were coeducational in the school year 1994/95, 79 per cent in 1995/96 and 76 per cent in 1996/97 (see table 4).

3. Secondary (intermediate and preparatory) schools

Girls accounted for 38.6 per cent of enrolment in the school year 1988/89 and 39 per cent in 1996/97 (see table 5). It is to be noted that the percentage of girls remained at 39 from the time prior to the imposition of the embargo on the country in 1990/91 up to 1996/97. Because of the care and attention accorded to education this figure did not change.

When comparing this figure with that of 44 per cent for girls at the elementary level, it must be borne in mind that the reason for the lower figure for secondary schools is that girls at this educational level are considered old enough to leave school, particularly in the countryside where early marriage is common and girls work in the rural household. The difficult circumstances in which the country finds itself as a result of the imposition of the embargo have also had a major impact on standards of living and economic and social conditions, so that large numbers of girls have been forced to drop out of school and discontinue their education.

Girls' schools and mixed schools accounted for 55 per cent of all secondary schools in the 1994/95 and 1995/96 school years and 54 per cent in 1996/97 (see table 6).

4. Vocational schools

The percentage of girls among students in vocational schools in 1994/95 was 23 and the figure fell to 17.6 in 1995/96 (see table 7).

5. Teacher-training colleges

Female enrolment in teacher-training colleges was 59.7 per cent of the total in 1994 and 60.6 per cent in 1995 and 1996 (see table 8).

6. Universities

Women represented 34.3 per cent of Iraqi university students in 1994, 33.6 per cent in 1995 and 33.7 per cent in 1996 (see table 9). They accounted for 43.9 per cent of graduates of Iraqi universities in 1987 and 40.4 per cent in 1996 (see table 10). Of students pursuing post-graduate studies at Iraqi universities in 1996 28.5 per cent were women (see table 11).

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;

A high percentage of members of the teaching staff in elementary schools are women, the figure being 70 per cent in 1994/95 and 71 per cent in 1995/96 and 1996/97 (see table 12). At the secondary level, 55 per cent of all teachers were women in 1994/95, 57 per cent in 1995/96 and 58 per cent in 1996/97 (see table 13). In vocational schools, women made up 51 per cent of

all members of the teaching staff in 1994 and 1995 and some 49 per cent in 1996 (see table 14). In teacher-training colleges, some 55 per cent of all teachers were women in 1994, 56 per cent in 1995 and 57 per cent in 1996 (see table 15). The percentage of women in the teaching faculties of the universities rose from 21.7 in 1987 to 26.9 in 1996/97 (see table 16).

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods;

Coeducation at the elementary level is common in the towns, and 76 per cent of all elementary schools were coeducational in 1996/97. There are, however, no coeducational schools at the secondary level other than in a few remote areas where buildings and teaching staff are in short supply. On the other hand, coeducation is again widespread at the university and postgraduate levels.

The Government pursues a policy of eliminating manifestations of sexual discrimination from school programmes and from textbooks and other educational materials. Among the measures being taken in this regard is the current emphasis in school curricula on highlighting the role of women in all fields. The Government also endeavours to accord women official recognition, elevate their status in society and promote their participation in the formulation of educational policies and programmes.

Iraqi State policy does not discriminate with regard to admission to colleges and institutions of higher education, and there are no restrictions on women entering the teaching profession.

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

Among members of the international community, Iraq has, of course, been noted for sending large numbers of students, both men and women, to study at overseas universities. It has always provided opportunities to students seeking to achieve their ambitions and goals. However, the embargo imposed on the country, which has now been maintained for eight years, has brought a halt to such scholarships and has curtailed opportunities to acquire greater knowledge.

(e) The same opportunities for access to programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

After the Glorious Revolution of 17 to 30 July 1968, Iraq experienced a qualitative shift with respect to the elimination of illiteracy. The illiteracy ratio had increased and was in the order of 48 per cent for the 15-to-45 age group. The Law on the Comprehensive National Compulsory Literacy Campaign (92/1987) was enacted once the theoretical and practical groundwork for its implementation had been laid by the conferences held and the committees established in this context.

The Iraqi leadership undertook to sponsor the campaign in the belief that illiteracy was one of the greatest obstacles to the country's political and economic advancement and associated with it all the relevant State institutions and civic and occupational organizations as well as the armed forces. All the capacities of the nation and the general public were put to work and all the necessary material, scientific and human resources were made available. In the light of the splendid results achieved, the campaign evoked

the admiration of the relevant pan-Arab and international organizations and the country received a number of awards in recognition of its success in this field.

(f) The reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

Despite the efforts made by governmental authorities and non-governmental organizations to cope with the phenomenon, the figures indicate that the student drop-out rate is higher than it should normally be. This is because of the impact of the economic, scientific and cultural embargo that has been maintained against Iraq since 1990 and is still in force at the time the present report is being prepared. Its many arbitrary aspects include its application to educational supplies such as paper for printing textbooks, stationery, pencils, teaching aids and laboratory equipment. There is an increasing need for new school buildings, and those that exist function inadequately because of deficient maintenance. There are also a great number of teaching vacancies because of the circumstances created by the embargo.

Other factors have also had an impact, principally the economic factors that have adversely affected school attendance. They have exacerbated the problems experienced by many families that have undermined their interest in their children's school needs and in providing them with incentives to study as well as their ability to assume additional burdens. They have thus been impelled to seek paid employment for their children so as to increase household income and secure the basic necessities of life.

The absorption of parents and guardians in their everyday work and in extra jobs has left them insufficient time to monitor their children and to help them do their homework and stay in school. Malnutrition, inadequate health care and the spread of disease have had a manifest impact on the health of children in general and on that of schoolchildren and students in particular. This situation has reduced levels of academic attainment and lowered success rates and has promoted chronic absenteeism. Children are left in a situation of acute frustration that may have a direct and major impact on their school career and lead to its abandonment.

Other factors that promote high drop-out rates are: the community traditions in some rural areas that prevent girls from staying at school and favour their marriage once they reach the legal minimum age; intermittent absence from school for purposes of work; lack of interest on the part of parents and guardians in monitoring their children's out-of-school activities because of the reduced standard of living owing to the unjust embargo being maintained against Iraq; and the high number of pupils in each class, rendering individual attention impossible.

The number of those who dropped out of elementary school nationwide in 1996/97 was 67,409, of whom 36,386 (or 53.9 per cent) were boys and 30,823 (or 45.8 per cent) were girls.

At the intermediate level, the figure was 52,047, of whom 28,111 were boys and 23,936 were girls. This represents 5.4 per cent of boys and 8.6 per cent of girls.

At the preparatory level the figure was 9,856, of whom 3,717 were boys and 6,139 were girls. This represents 2.2 per cent of boys and 4.4 per cent of girls.

In vocational education the figure was 3,112, and there were 212 male drop-outs in the agricultural branch and 788 male and female drop-outs in the commercial branch.

The total number of enrolled students was 4,122,621 and the total number of drop-outs was 133,224, or 3 per cent.

It should be pointed out that the circumstances created by the embargo imposed on the country have led to a rise in school drop-out rates and have thus caused illiteracy to spread in a country that was once among the pioneer promoters of mass literacy.

(g) The same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;

Women in Iraq participate in sports, and sport is a required subject at all levels of education from elementary school to university. There is a women's college of physical education at Baghdad University that produces coaches and games teachers for schools and institutions of higher education. Sports clubs in Iraq have large numbers of female members, and there are also women's teams that take part in sporting competitions. Some Iraqi women athletes have won medals at regional and international championships.

[(h) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning.]

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;

(b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;

(c) The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;

(d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;

(e) The right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave;

(f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

(a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;

(b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;

(c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;

(d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.

3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

Iraqi legislation guarantees the right to work to all able citizens on equal terms and with equal opportunity for all without discrimination on grounds of sex, race or language. It also provides for occupational training within the limits established by the State concerning the scope and type of employment in each occupational sector. A summary of labour legislation is given hereunder.

I. Women employed in the private, cooperative and mixed sectors

1. The Labour Code (81/1987)

The Code replaced Law 151/1970, and it contains important provisions concerning labour rights. It was enacted after the entry into force of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

Article 4 of the Code addresses the right of workers to obtain a wage sufficient to meet their basic needs and enable them to support their families. In determining wages, the type and amount of work performed by the worker and the principle of equal pay for equal work, in terms of the type and quantity of work performed in similar conditions, are taken into account.

The protection of working women is covered in chapter VI, section I, of the Code, which consists of nine articles (articles 80-89). Article 80 requires the employer of a woman or of women to display a copy of the provisions concerning the protection of working women in the workplace. Article 81 stipulates that women may not be employed to perform hard labour or tasks that are harmful to health, as defined in the instructions issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Hard labour thus includes: night work; work in quarries; draught and forge work; and foundry work. Article 82 prohibits overtime for expectant mothers. Article 83 stipulates that women may only be employed to do night work where perishable commodities or products are involved, but this provision does not apply to administrative work, health and recreational services and transport and communications services. Working women are to be allowed daily rest for a period of not less than 11 consecutive hours, at least seven of which must be between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m.

Articles 84, 85 and 86 deal with the periods of leave to which working women are entitled. They include:

Childbearing leave with full pay for 72 days, extendable by the competent medical authority to nine months in the case of a difficult confinement, multiple births or prenatal or postnatal complications;

Leave for 30 days from the presumed date of confinement in accordance with a certificate issued by the competent medical authority;

Special maternity leave without pay, subject to the approval of the employer, for a period of not more than one year in order to care for a child in its first year.

Any additional time granted to a working woman is regarded as leave without pay unless she is insured, when the provisions of the Workers' Retirement and Social Security Law are applied. A woman may not participate in paid employment or engage in any work that is harmful to her health while on childbearing leave.

Article 87 allows a working woman a period of not more than one hour, to be considered as time worked, in which to nurse her child; article 88 requires the provision of rest facilities for women subject to the requirements of the job; and article 89 stipulates that the provisions of section I do not apply to women working in a family environment.

It should be noted that the provisions of the Code apply only to women working in the private, mixed and cooperative sectors. By virtue of Revolution Command Council decree 150/1987, women employed in the socialist sector became employees of the State subject to the provisions applied to civil servants.

Because of the embargo, employers have been allowed a certain flexibility in matters of labour relations and this also affects the enactments for the equality of women in the private sector. Immediately the embargo is lifted, it will be possible to guarantee a woman's right not to be dismissed on taking childbearing leave.

2. The Workers' Retirement and Social Security Law (39/1971)

Taking account of the biological facts, articles 45 to 48 of this Law grant women the right to childbearing and confinement leave on full pay and to full and free health care for themselves and their offspring. Article 65 allows women to apply for retirement on reaching the age of 55 (which is five years less than the age of retirement for men) or at any age after 25 years of insured service.

II. Women employed by the State and in the socialist sector

Pursuant to Revolution Command Council decree 150/1987, all employees in government offices and in the socialist sector are regarded as civil servants equal to other civil servants in respect of rights and duties and subject to the laws, rules, regulations and instructions governing the civil service. These rules require equality in remuneration and retirement benefits. Maternity leave is for six months on full pay and six months on half pay, pursuant to Revolution Command Council decree 882/1987. Revolution Command Council decree 727/1987 allows a woman civil servant who gives birth to twins one year's maternity leave on full pay in order to care for them during their first year.

Participation of women in the industrial, financial and commercial fields

The participation of women in the industrial workforce in general has increased appreciably, going from 17 per cent in 1987 to 18.9 per cent in 1990 and to 21 per cent in 1995.

Women account for 14 per cent of persons employed in the commercial sector and are strongly represented in the financial and banking sector. The Ministry of Finance employs 17,195 women, representing 67 per cent of its total workforce of 25,774.

Women have occupied senior administrative posts at the director-general level at the Industrial Bank and at the expert level at the Ministry's headquarters and in insurance companies. They have been members of boards of management, and 156 women have occupied director-level posts in all departments of the Ministry.

Childcare facilities for working mothers and civil servants

So that working women can combine work with child-rearing, the State has paid great attention to providing childcare for working mothers and women civil servants and has established day-care centres in residential areas and at factories and other places of work. Table 17 shows the number of childcare centres, which increased from 226 to 231, and the number of children enrolled, which declied from 10,292 to 9,509, for the period 1987-1996.

Responsibility for the establishment and operation of daycare centres was entrusted to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs by the Day-care Centres Ordinance (42/1977). This authorizes the Ministry to grant permits for the establishment of such centres to official and quasi-official institutions and to trade unions and other organizations and gives it the power to supervise their social, educational and health-related activities in coordination with the Ministry of Health.

Under an agreement between the Ministry of Labour and the United Nations Development Programme, a staff training centre and a model day-care centre have been established and training courses have been held for supervisory and management staff.

Revolution Command Council decree 251/1986 encourages the establishment of non-governmental day-care centres and provides for the possibility of citizens securing loans for related purposes of construction, modification or leasing. There are also the day-care centres of the General Federation of Iraqi Women, and there is ongoing cooperation between the Federation and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs in this field.

Article 12

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, access to health care services, including those related to family planning.

2. Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph 1 of this article, States Parties shall ensure to women appropriate services in connection with pregnancy, confinement and the post-natal period, granting free services where necessary, as well as adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.

Iraqi legislation pays special attention to health care for women and the family over and above the health care that is provided to all citizens regardless of gender. The Public Health Law (89/1981) remains in effect, and its chapter II, section 1, contains provisions concerning mother-and-child health care and family health care. Mother-and-child health care services are provided through the health institutions in the areas where citizens live.

The Ministry of Health has established a system of universal primary health care, and mother-and-child health care services are provided at all 900 of the primary health care centres located throughout the country in accordance with the distribution of the population.

The health-care services seek to reduce maternal and infant morbidity and mortality in the perinatal period, provide prenuptial counseling and ensure a safe and sanitary confinement by monitoring obstetric care in the country and the training of traditional, unlicensed midwives. Mother-and-child health has been adversely affected by the embargo imposed on the country, and the post-neonatal mortality rate (including that for girls) has increased since the embargo from 25 to 92.7 per 1,000 live births. The under-five mortality rate (for girls as well as boys) has increased since the

embargo was imposed from 52 to 128 per 1,000 live births. Mortality during pregnancy or confinement has also increased to 117 per 100,000, and monthly mortality rates are shown in table 18. Monthly rates for the birth of infants (including infant girls) weighing less than 2.5 kilograms have also increased, as shown in table 19.

Despite the intensive efforts, the support provided by mass organizations and international agencies scarcely meets the need for essential services to mothers. It is impossibile to keep abreast of international developments in reproductive health and safe motherhood or to secure sufficient food and medicine because of the circumstances created by the embargo and the freezing of Iraqi assets. Even the arrangements under the memorandum of understanding of 20 May 1996 between Iraq and the Secretariat of the United Nations only provide a small part of what is needed in order to develop health programmes, including mother-and-child health programmes.

Health plans focus on training in order to increase the effectiveness of mother-and-child health care providers and on health education. Health-care services are provided to all citizens, including women, free of charge.

Preventive services

The most important of the preventive services provided to women are:

(a) Coverage for all candidates for marriage in terms of the clinical and laboratory tests necessary to demonstrate fitness and the provision of the relevant medical certificates. Such coverage falls short of the target, since it is impossible to perform all of the laboratory tests necessary because of the circumstances created by the embargo;

(b) Provision to target groups (the newborn, infants and expectant mothers) of health-care services, periodical medical visits, post-confinement health care and the necessary medical, clinical and laboratory tests. Despite the efforts made to ensure coverage and high-quality care to these groups, they continue to lack laboratory testing services such as those for the early detection of cervical cancer and breast cancer because of the unjust embargo (see tables 20 and 21). Health programmes emphasize alerting mothers and other women to the importance of regular attendance at health institutions and the promotion of health education. In 1993 the Ministry of Health adopted a programme to encourage breastfeeding and a baby-friendly hospitals project aimed at promoting healthy practices and health awareness. A field survey conducted in 1994 by the Ministry of Health with the General Federation of Iraqi Women showed that there was no difference in the incidence of breastfeeding for boys and for girls. The incidence of breastfeeding, mixed feeding and bottle-feeding were, respectively, 70.3 per cent, 17.7 per cent and 12 per cent;

(c) Provision of family planning services and information to target groups through advisory clinics in women's hospitals and maternity hospitals, family planning clinics, advocacy clinics and people's clinics. In 1994 there were 36 clinics with 177,113 clients, by the end of 1996 there were 65 clinics with 418,835 clients, and by mid-1997 there were 75 clinics. Coverage remains sparse, and it falls short of the target because of the embargo being maintained against the country (see table 22);

(d) Provision of trained birth attendants. In 1987 74 per cent of confinements were attended by trained personnel, and the figure had risen to 85 per cent by 1994. A field survey conducted in homes in 1997 in cooperation with the relevant international agencies showed that 91 per cent of confinements were attended by a medically trained person

(see table 23). A plan was also formulated for sanitary confinement, and it included training for all midwives with a view to improving the midwifery situation in the country and ensuring mothers a safe confinement;

(e) Continued provision of inoculations to 90 per cent of children in the under-five age group, regardless of sex, and to 80 per cent of women of childbearing age through the Expanded Programme on Immunization. The percentage of expectant mothers inoculated with two doses of tetanus toxoid rose from 53 in 1987 to 65 in 1996, and that for women of childbearing age rose from 15 in 1994 to 48 in 1996 (see table 24). The situation has been similar with respect to poliomyelitis vaccination campaigns, and there were national immunization days in 1995, 1996, 1997 and 1998. UNICEF provides vaccines covered by the Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI) but not other vaccines, such as those for German measles, rubeola, viral hepatitis B and meningitis. Some serums that can be life-savers for citizens in general and for women in particular are also unavailable. The constant expansion of vaccination programmes that is required in order to reach the international targets for the elimination of poliomyelitis, neonatal tetanus and measles and thus lower rates of morbidity and mortality among women and children requires the amounts allocated under the 1996 memorandum of understanding to be increased. UNICEF must also maintain and expand its participation in order to ensure the implementation of EPI and of the joint international plans.

The nutritional situation has affected all citizens, including women in general and women of childbearing age in particular, as a result of the circumstances created by the embargo. Despite the efforts made by the State to secure and subsidize foodstuffs, studies and surveys have shown that the incidence of anaemia among expectant mothers has begun to rise. It was 51 per cent in 1994 and rose to 56 per cent in 1995/1996. Among women of childbearing age it was 37 per cent. The Ministry of Health has adopted a plan to prevent anaemia among expectant and nursing mothers by giving iron and folic acid tablets to expectant mothers on a routine basis after their fourth month. The plan is, however, failing to achieve its purpose because there is insufficient food available that contains the necessary vitamins and elements in addition to iron. Indications of malnutrition (length/weight, age/weight) have begun to become more prevalent among a segment of children, and previously unknown diseases have begun to appear such as protein deficiency (kwashiorkor) and energy deficiency (emaciation and vitamin deficiency owing to lack of such basic vitamins as vitamin D). The health-care services cannot meet their responsibilities in the proper manner because of shortages of medicine. The provision of medical supplies remains irregular and insufficient at most centres (see tables 25 and 26).

Therapeutic services

The Ministry of Health has extended health institutions specializing in the treatment of gynaecological disorders, in midwifery and in paediatrics to all governorates. New gynaecology and maternity sections have been established in government hospitals, and the total number of hospitals that had beds for women and for confinement in the period 1995 to 1997 was 86, representing 65 per cent of all government hospitals (see table 27). The number of beds assigned to women and to maternity purposes during these years was 3,162. In a general way, therapeutic services for patients in health institutions, including women, have been adversely affected. The embargo imposed on the country has also had an impact on major surgical procedures and on laboratory testing (see table 28).

Situation of women in the workforce of the Ministry of Health

Women have accounted for a high percentage of the Ministry of Health medical staff, and in 1996 57.14 per cent of dentists and 77.94 percent of pharmacists were women. It should also be noted that the State is committed to creating employment opportunities for women doctors on a basis of equality with men.

Article 13

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to family benefits;

Women have the same economic rights as men without discrimination of any kind, and this is particularly so with respect to rights arising out of employment in the professions and in government service and to financial rights. Women have the same right as men to family benefits because they are regarded as independently responsible under the Equality of Men and Women in Financial Matters Law (191/1975) of 20 November 1975.

Social welfare for women unable to work

Article 2 of the Social Welfare Law (126/1980) provides that the State shall endeavour to ensure the social welfare of every citizen during his lifetime and of his survivors after his death. Article 3 stipulates that work is a right that the State undertakes to secure for each citizen and a duty for all who have the necessary ability. It also stipulates that the State has the goal of providing for the social security for all citizens in the event of disability and old age. Chapter II, part I, deals with family welfare. Article 8 defines "family", for the purposes of the Law, as the husband and wife, or either one, and the children, if any. It states that in the case of polygamy the members of the household are one family, but that in the event the husband dies each widow forms her own independent family. Article 10 defines "low-income family" as: a family whose monthly income is less than the minimum wage of an unskilled worker in the case where the family consists of five or more members; less 75 per cent of that amount where it consists of four members; less than 70 per cent where it consists of three members; less than 66 per cent where it consists of two members; and less than 33 per cent where it consists of one member. According to article 11, a "zero-income family" is one that has no regular income of its own on which to live. Under article 13, among those covered by the provisions of articles 7 and 11 as entitled to a family welfare allowance are widows or divorcées who have minor children who live with them. The child becomes entitled to the allowance in the case of remarriage, except where the child of a divorcée passes to the custody of the father. Under article 15, each family member (even a woman, since no distinction is made between men and women) is entitled to 2,217 dinars a month. Thus the provisions of the Social Welfare Law do not discriminate between men and women.

(b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;

The legislation relating to commercial, agricultural and mortgage banks permits women to obtain bank loans in the same way as men, without discrimination of any kind and without any need for the approval of their husbands. This is because they have legally independent financial liability.

(c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.

Women may participate in recreational activities and sports without discrimination on grounds of sex. Sports clubs have women's teams for basketball, table tennis, volleyball, swimming and running. In the cultural sphere, women are involved in many activities in such literary fields as poetry and fiction, in the fine arts, in the theatre and in music.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetised sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of the present Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

(a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;

(b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning;

(c) To benefit directly from social security programmes;

(d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, inter alia, the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;

(e) To organize self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self employment;

(f) To participate in all community activities;

(g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;

(h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

The laws that regulate rural life do not discriminate between men and women with respect to the ownership of agricultural land, rights of inheritance, land use, the right to join agricultural associations or access to agricultural loans. The share of women in the agricultural workforce in the Iraqi countryside is high, at some 50 per cent of the total, over and above their societal role and their responsibilities as mothers and housewives.

The Glorious Revolution of 17 to 30 July 1968 introduced new patterns of ownership and new production methods into the Iraqi countryside, it made large-scale investments in irrigation, land reclamation and infrastructure projects, and it promoted agricultural mechanization, all of which has had a direct impact on rural women. It can be said that a number of factors have combined to improve the situation of rural women, namely:

(a) The enactment of the Compulsory Education Law of 1976 and the Compulsory Literacy Law of 1978, as well as the introduction of free education in 1974. These laws apply to both sexes and to rural areas, so that they cover more women than men because of the high incidence of illiteracy among women;

(b) The improvement of communications in the countryside, which has promoted social awareness and modern values;

(c) The efforts made in the fields of social services and health services; the provision of clean drinking water; the expansion of agricultural extension services; and the broadcasting, in coordination with the Education and Agricultural Extension Department of the Ministry of Agriculture, of informational television and radio programmes for rural women;

(d) An educational policy designed to encourage women to seek specialized training in the agricultural professions and, since 1975, to seek admission to colleges of agriculture;

(e) The promotion of rural household industries.

Equality between men and women in benefiting from land and agrarian reform and in obtaining agricultural credit and loans

The Agrarian Reform Law (117/1970) gave women the right to exercise economic independence and to hold a tract of land for reclamation and cultivation on the same terms as men. The regulations of the Agricultural Bank also permit women to borrow on an equal footing with men. The Cooperative Societies Law (43/1979) gives women the right to participate in cooperatives as members on a basis of equality with men with respect to all the rights and duties specified in the Law.

The elimination of discrimination against rural women requires nothing less than a socio-cultural development process that affects the countryside as a whole and all of its residents, men and women alike. Women are an integral part of the rural community and both influence it and are influenced by it. Iraq takes every occasion to affirm that the right to development is a basic human right and that discrimination against women will only be eliminated when all citizens, men and women alike, exercise their right to comprehensive economic and cultural development. At the same time, special attention should be paid to the countryside because of its backwardness.

PART IV

Article 15

1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.

2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. In particular, they shall give women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and shall treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.

3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.

4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

The peremptory constitutional norm governing Iraqi legislation on the equal legal capacity of women and men is that enunciated in article 19 of the Constitution, as quoted at the beginning of the present report. The provisions of the article were addressed in Iraq's initial report, and reference was made there to the enactments relating to the legal capacity of women. They include:

(a) The Civil Code, enacted in 1951, which makes no distinction between men and women in terms of legal capacity. Its article 46 staces that every person of full age who is mentally competent and not in custody has full capacity to exercise civil rights;

(b) The Commercial Code (30/1984) and all previous such codes, which do not discriminate between men and women with respect to the pursuit of trade or the conduct of business provided that the person concerned has legal capacity and is of Iraqi nationality. A woman may therefore engage in trade by herself and on her own account. There is no requirement for the husband's prior approval, as was the case in many legal systems in the West in the past;

(c) The Companies Law (21/1997), which makes no distinction between men and women and permits every citizen who has legal capacity to be a partner, shareholder, managing director or chairman of the board of a company;

(d) The civil and criminal codes of procedure, which do not distinguish between men and women in any proceedings before courts and judicial tribunals regardless of the level.

The full legal capacity of Iraqi women is thus a peremptory constitutional norm that relates to public order, and any measures that are incompatible with it are thus to be considered legally null and void.

Freedom of persons to choose their residence and domicile

Iraqi legislation does not distinguish between men and women with respect to the movement of persons or their right to choose their place of residence. Legal enactments are disseminated through the various media, that is to say in the press and on radio and television. The official gazette, Al-Waqa'i al-Iraqiyah, appears weekly and publishes the laws, decrees, regulations and instructions that reflect the country's legislative policy. There are also special programmes for women.

Article 16

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same right to enter into marriage;

(b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent;

(c) The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and at its dissolution;

(d) The same rights and responsibilities as parents, irrespective of their

marital status, in matters relating to their children; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

(e) The same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights;

(f) The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship, trusteeship and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

(g) The same personal rights as husband and wife, including the right to choose a family name, a profession and an occupation;

(h) The same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property, whether free of charge or for a valuable consideration.

2. The betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect, and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

Iraq expressed a reservation with respect to this article on the basis of the countervailing rights that are enjoined in Islamic law for the husband and wife in order to establish a just balance between them. The reason for this reservation was Iraq's concern to meet its international obligations under the Convention, on the one hand, and its commitment to its own cultural and legal heritage, as represented by Islamic law, on the other. Islamic law is the primary source of personal-status law and constitutes the peremptory norm in this field. A review of Iraqi legislation in the relevant area nevertheless shows that it is essentially in compliance with the spirit of article 16.

The Personal Status Code (188/1959), as amended, is the basic enactment regulating matters of personal status in Iraq, that is to say such matters as marriage, kinship, child custody and inheritance. It applies to all Iraqis other than those exempted under a special law enacted pursuant to its article 2. This exemption is for non-Muslim citizens, since for them such matters as marriage and its dissolution are regulated by the religious communities to which they belong. The personal status courts approve marriage contracts and consider disputes involving Muslim citizens, while the courts of first instance do the same for non-Muslim citizens.

1. Capacity to enter into marriage

Articles 3, 7 and 8 of the Code define marriage as a contract between a man and a woman who is for him legally marriageable and stipilates that full capacity for marriage requires mental competence and a minimum age of 18. A judge may permit the marriage of a mentally ill person on the basis of a medical certificate to the effect that such a marriage will not be harmful to society. A person over the age of 15 seeking to marry may do so with the approval of a judge, on verification of lawful maturity and physical capacity and with the permission of the legal guardian. These provisions correspond in substance with those of article 16, paragraph 2, which prohibit the betrothal or marriage of a child.

2. Consent to marriage and registration

Articles 4, 5, 6, 9 and 10 of section II of the Personal Status Code deal with the conditions and terms of marriage such as the offer (Ījāb),

capacity to enter into marriage, the acceptance (qabūl), the ability of each party to hear the declaration of the other, the presence of two legally competent witnesses and the absence from the contract of any unfulfilled condition. Article 6, paragraph 2, states that marriage may be contracted by a man who is not present if he writes to the woman he wishes to marry and the letter is read to her before two witnesses or if she reads the letter to them and calls them to witness that she accepts the offer of marriage. Iraqi law thus insists that the element of consent to marriage should be fully and clearly present, as is required by paragraph 1 (b) of article 16 of the Convention.

Iraqi law regards forced marriage as a crime punishable by three years in prison or a fine for those in the first degree of relationship. For others the penalty is imprisonment for not less than three and not more than 10 years.

The Code also stipulates that marriages should be recorded with the relevant court, free of charge, in a special register. This is done by the submission of a statement, for which no stamp duty is required, identifying the two parties and signed by them, accompanied by a medical certificate to the effect that the spouses are free of infectious diseases. A penalty is established for contracts concluded outside the purview of the court. These provisions are in keeping with those of article 6, paragraph 2, of the Convention concerning the compulsory registration of marriages.

3. Legal checks on polygamy

As is well known, Islamic law allows a man to marry more than one wife. Checks have been established in order to regulate this right, and the provisions of article 3, paragraphs 4, 5, 6 and 7, of the Personal Status Code forbid marriage to more than one wife other than with the permission of a judge given on the basis of the husband's financial ability to support another wife and of there being a legitimate interest to be served. Anyone who otherwise contracts such a marriage is subject to a penalty of imprisonment and a fine. Exemption to the provisions of paragraphs 4 and 5 may be granted where the prospective wife is a widow. Article 4, paragraph 3, permits a wife to seek separation from her husband if he takes a second wife without the permission of the court.

4. Rights of the wife in the marriage

A wife may keep her movable and immovable property and manage it as she sees fit in her own interests. Her rights as a spouse include the entitlement to a dowry and to maintenance, as regulated by chapter III, articles 19 to 33, of the Personal Status Code.

5. Dissolution of marriage and the equal rights of spouses

There are three ways in which a marriage can be dissolved, namely divorce (talāq, repudiation by the husband), judicial separation and elective separation (khul', release at the instance of the wife). The question of the equal rights of spouses on the dissolution of their marriage is addressed hereunder in the light of the provisions of article 16, paragraph 1 (c), of the Convention.

Divorce: definition and legal effects

In article 34 of the Personal Status Code, divorce (talaq) is defined as the severance of the marriage tie by the husband (or by the wife, if so delegated or authorized), or by a judge. Divorce may only take place in the manner specified by law.

Article 38 of the Code presents the various kinds of repudiation (talaq). In revocable repudiation (talāq raj'I), the husband may return to his wife during the waiting period ('iddah) prescribed for her without any need for remarriage. Revocation takes place in the same manner as repudiation. Final repudiation (talāq bā'in) is of two kinds, major and minor. In the first, a husband may remarry a wife he has repudiated by concluding a new contract; and in the second, a husband is forbidden to remarry a wife he has repudiated on three separate occasions and whose 'iddah has elapsed. The Code also requires that the person pronouncing repudiation should have full capacity, so that he may not be intoxicated, insane, simple-minded or lacking in judgement because of anger, sudden calamity or terminal illness. In order to preserve the serious character of the formula of repudiation, article 36 stipulates that it cannot be incomplete, conditional or made in the form of an oath. Articles 37 and 39 deal with the formulas used for repudiation and the related judicial procedures. The important point is that, in principle, divorce should be effected in a judicial manner, that is to say by means of an action brought by one of the spouses, and that it should be registered with the court during the wife's waiting period ('iddah).

Compensation of the wife for arbitrary repudiation by the husband

Law 51/1985 was enacted in order to protect wives from arbitrary repudiation, compensate them for ill-treatment and preserve their dignity. Incorporated in the Personal Status Code as article 39, paragraph 3, it provides that where a husband repudiates his wife and the court determines that he did so arbitrarily and that she suffered prejudice thereby, the husband shall be required to pay such compensation as is commensurate with his financial situation and the degree of arbitrariness shown.

The Divorced Women's Right to Housing Law (77/1983) requires that a woman in respect of whom a decree is issued has the right to remain in the house or apartment in which she has lived with her husband for a sufficient period of time to enable her to secure appropriate accommodation. A second paragraph was added to article 1 of the Law by Law 27/1988, so that the Law as amended now contains six articles concerning the right of a divorced woman to live in the house owned by her former husband. For the case where accommodation is rented, Revolution Command Council decree 1/1983 states that:

> "When a woman is repudiated and her husband is the tenant of a rented house or apartment, the rights and obligations of occupancy shall be transferred to her, should she express the desire to become the tenant, in accordance with the lease concluded by her husband."

Judicial separation and its legal consequences

Article 40 of the Personal Status Code states that either spouse may apply for separation for any of the following reasons: if one of the spouses causes such harm to the other or to their children that conjugal life cannot be maintained; if a spouse commits adultery; if the marriage took place before either spouse reached the age of 18 without the approval of a judge; if the marriage was concluded outside the purview of the court by coercion and was consummated; and if the husband marries a second wife without the approval of the court.

Article 43 provides that a wife shall have the right to apply for separation for any of the following reasons: if the husband has been sentenced to deprivation of liberty for a period of three years or more, even if he has assets from which she can support herself; if the husband has abandoned her for no good reason for a period of two years or more; if, the marriage being unconsummated, the husband fails to seek her for the wedding ceremony within two years of the date the contract is concluded; if she finds the husband to be incapacitated in such a way as to be unable to perform his

marital duties; if the husband is sterile; if the husband fails to pay accumulated court-ordered maintenance; and if the husband fails to support her for no good reason.

The wife is also entitled to seek judicial separation before consummation takes place, in which case she returns all of the property she has received and reimburses all expenses. She may also seek separation from a husband who is a national of a foreign country, has been residing abroad for at least three years and is unable to enter Iraq. Revolution Command Council decree 1708/1987 permits a wife to seek separation if her husband is convicted of treason, and Revolution Command Council decree 1529/1985 also allows a wife to seek judicial separation from her husband if he avoids military service or defects to the enemy. This is regarded as a revocable divorce in the case where the husband subsequently enters military service or returns from defection during the wife's period of waiting (_'iddah_). Should he desert again and separation is again granted, this is regarded as final divorce of the "minor" category.

Procedures for judicial separation

Before a court reaches a decision on separation on the basis of an action brought by one of the spouses, it follows the procedures laid down in article 41, paragraphs 2, 3 and 4, of the Personal Status Code, which require the court to investigate the reasons for the dispute and consider reconciliation through the husband's family or that of the wife. If this fails, two arbitrators are chosen by the spouses or, if they are unable to agree, by the court. If the arbitrators fail to bring about a reconciliation, they refer the matter to the court, indicating which of the parties is at fault. If they cannot agree on this, the court appoints a third arbitrator. If the court determines that the dispute continues and that the husband refuses to repudiate his wife, then the court separates the two.

Legal consequences of judicial separation

Article 41 (b) states that if separation is decreed after consummation has taken place, the deferred dowry lapses in the case where the wife is at fault. If she has already been paid the entire dowry, she must return no more than one half. If both parties are at fault, the deferred dowry is divided between them in accordance with the degree of fault of each.

Elective separation (khul')

Article 46 states that _khul'_ is the dissolution of the marriage tie and is concluded with an offer (_ijab_) and an acceptance (_qabul_) made before a judge. For _khul'_ to be valid, the husband must have the capacity to pronounce repudiation, and he may grant his wife a divorce for a payment that is either greater or less than her dowry.

It is clear from the foregoing that Iraqi legislation regulating marriage, its legal effects and its dissolution guarantees the equal rights of the spouses in accordance with Islamic law, without being restricted to any specific school of Islamic legal thought, in order to maintain the dignity of women and protect their legal status. In terms of outcome, this conforms with the provisions of subparagraphs (a), (b) and (c) of paragraph 1 of article 16 of the Convention.

The questions of fosterage and the custody of children are dealt with in chapter VI, section II, article 57, of the Personal Status Code. In order to facilitate visitations by one parent to a child who is in the custody of the other party in accordance with a judgement of the personal status court, Revolution Command Council decree 211/1984 provides that such visitations shall take place at the premises of the General Federation of Iraqi Women in

the town where the child resides. This accords with the provisions of paragraph 1 (f) of article 16 of the Convention.

There are no personal status enactments in Iraq that require women to change their family names on marriage, and women retain their legal personalities, including their names. An entry is added in a woman's civil identification document to the effect that she is married to such-and-such a person. A woman's marriage also does not affect her freedom to choose a profession or seek a position under labour or civil service legislation.

ANNEX

TABLES

1. Male and female civil servants by educational level with women as a percentage of the total, 1987-1996 (excluding the autonomous region after 1992)

2. Numbers of kindergartens, enrolment by sex and number of teachers, 1987-1997 (excluding the autonomous region)

3. Elementary school enrolment by sex, 1987-1997 (excluding the autonomous region after 1991/92)

4. Boys', girls' and coeducational schools with coeducational schools as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994/95 and 1995/96 (excluding the autonomous region)

5. Secondary (intermediate and preparatory) school enrolment by sex, 1987/88-1996/97 (excluding the autonomous region after 1991/92)

6. Boys', girls' and coeducational secondary schools, 1996, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region after 1991/92)

7. Enrolment in agricultural, industrial and commercial vocational schools by sex, 1996, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

8. Enrolment in teacher training colleges with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

9. Enrolment in universities and technical colleges by sex with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

10. Graduates of Iraqi universities with women as a percentage of the total, 1987/88-1995/96 (excluding the autonomous region)

11. Enrolment in advanced studies, 1996/97 (excluding the autonomous region)

12. Teaching staff in elementary schools with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

13. Teaching staff in secondary schools with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

14. Teaching staff in vocational schools (agricultural, industrial and commercial) with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

15. Teaching staff in teacher-training colleges with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

16. Teaching staff in universities and technical colleges with women as a percentage of the total, 1987/88-1996/97 (excluding the autonomous region)

17. Number of day-care centres with enrolment and staffing by sex, 1987-1996 (excluding the autonomous region)

18. Deaths attributable to the economic embargo by age group, 1990-1998, with selected causes

19. Birthweights of less than 2.5 kilograms recorded by the health authorities during the period of the economic embargo, 1990-1998

20. Percentage of target groups receiving the third periodic medical visit, 1989-1996

21. Monthly averages or totals for laboratory tests by type of test and as a percentage of the 1989 figures, 1989-1998

22. Reproductive health and family planning:

    (a) Women beneficiaries of services, 1991-1997

    (b) Staff trained, 1991-1997

    (c) Services, 1986

    (d) Number of clinics, 1991-1997

23. Total and percentage of births attended by trained personnel, 1987-1994

24. Percentage of expectant mothers and women of childbearing age receiving tetanus toxoid vaccinations, 1987-1996

25. Percentage of infants suffering from malnutrition: results of the nutritional survey conducted in October 1997

26. Impact of the economic embargo on the nutritional situation, 1990-1998

27. Gynaecological, obstetric, maternity and paediatric hospitals with number of beds and number of inpatients for 1995, 1996 and 1997

28. Impact of the economic embargo on major surgical procedures, 1989-1998

29. Impact of the economic embargo on the incidence of transmissible diseases in Iraq, 1989-1997

Table 1

Male and female civil servants by educational level with women as a percentage of the total, 1987-1996 (excluding the autonomous region after 1992)

Year	Educational level											
	No certificate			Elementary			Intermediate			Preparatory		
	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women
1987	37 302	304 441	12.25	26 843	143 881	18	25 320	63 012	40	95 518	173 745	54
1988	37 619	329 511	11.4	27 015	146 516	18.4	25 536	64 851	39.4	96 207	181 849	52.9
1989	34 600	228 404	12.2	24 479	129 836	18.9	23 733	58 860	40.3	91 493	168 353	54.4
1990	34 990	257 237	13.6	22 525	123 199	20.5	23 954	54 184	44.2	95 168	170 504	55.8
1991												
1992	35 755	224 502	15.9	23 553	107 029	22.0	23 138	50 152	46.1	97 940	181 529	54.0
1993	35 333	212 013	16.7	22 991	102 664	22.4	23 362	49 734	47.0	100 258	184 551	54.3
1994	36 167	205 109	17.6	23 087	102 287	22.6	23 412	49 579	47.2	102 251	199 116	53.5
1995	37 526	204 015	18.4	23 591	104 656	22.5	23 840	50 751	47.0	104 192	195 288	53.4
1996	36 514	195 173	18.7	23 242	105 060	2.1	23 607	51 057	46.2	103 982	198 784	52.3

Year	Educational level											
	Diploma			Bachelor's degree			Higher diploma			Master's degree		
	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women
1987	38 791	88 390	44	51 867	113 381	45	881	3 416	26	1 229	5 822	21
1988	39 036	89 794	43.5	52 435	117 531	44.6	901	3 527	25.5	1 249	5 959	21.0
1989	41 112	91 110	45.1	51 427	112 977	45.5	874	3 365	26.0	1 208	5 762	21.0
1990	52 593	108 077	48.7	56 855	116 352	48.9	910	3 347	27.2	1 627	6 824	23.1
1991												
1992	61 377	124 798	49.2	61 148	123 427	49.5	897	3 149	28.5	1 579	6 829	23.1
1993	64 308	130 069	49.4	63 807	122 745	50.1	909	3 139	29.0	1 605	7 068	22.7
1994	68 353	136 487	50.1	66 612	132 752	50.2	899	3 049	29.5	1 573	6 930	22.7
1995	74 618	145 477	51.3	71 382	139 744	51.1	898	3 001	29.9	1 548	6 988	22.2
1996	75 539	148 382	50.9	71 794	141 131	50.9	873	2 914	30.0	1 543	6 780	22.1

/...

Year	Doctorate			Other			Total		
	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women	Women	Total	Percentage of women
1987	378	4 045	9.0	26	219	11.9	278 156	900 352	31.0
1988	390	4 151	9.4	25	206	12.1	280 413	943 938	29.7
1989	379	4 017	9.4	24	195	12.3	269 329	858 522	31.4
1990	431	4 452	9.7	21	193	10.9	91 799	144 369	63.6
1991									
1992	415	4 244	9.8	22	183	12.0	305 824	825 905	37.0
1993	410	4 192	9.8	25	183	13.7	313 008	821 063	38.1
1994	386	4 012	9.6	26	183	14.2	322 766	831 523	38.8
1995	385	3 892	9.9	29	181	16.0	338 009	854 093	39.6
1996	358	3 595	10.0	28	167	16.8	337 408	853 044	39.6

Table 2

Numbers of kindergartens, enrolment by sex and number of teachers, 1987-1997 (excluding the autonomous region)

Year	Number of kindergartens	Number of children		Total	Girls (percentage)	Number of teachers
		Boys	Girls			
1987/88	594	39 580	36 978	76 558	48	8 572
1988/89	614	44 492	40 604	85 096	48	4 654
1989/90	643	46 003	41 917	87 920	48	5 010
1990/91	646	45 283	41 225	86 508	48	4 908
1991/92	580	40 992	38 014	79 006	48	4 598
1992/93	578	47 180	43 656	90 836	48	4 778
1993/94	580	49 162	45 849	95 011	48	4 919
1994/95	576	47 808	45 220	93 028	49	4 972
1995/96	571	43 889	41 135	85 022	48	4 841
1996/97	569	37 801	36 917	73 718	49	4 842

Table 3

Elementary school enrolment by sex, 1987-1997 (excluding the autonomous region after 1991/92)

Year	Boys		Girls		Total
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
1987/88	1 623 815	56	1 300 870	44	2 922 468
1988/89	1 688 325	56	1 334 807	44	3 023 132
1989/90	1 804 642	56	1 433 641	44	3 238 283
1990/91	1 848 315	56	1 479 897	44	3 328 212
1991/92	1 556 972	55	1 267 584	45	2 824 556
1992/93	1 580 411	55	1 277 056	45	2 857 467
1993/94	1 606 333	55	1 295 906	45	2 902 239
1994/95	1 614 560	55	1 298 973	45	2 913 533
1995/96	1 602 071	55	1 301 852	45	2 903 923
1996/97	1 628 813	55	1 318 299	45	2 947 112

Table 4

Boys', girls' and coeducational schools with coeducational schools as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994/95 and 1995/96 (excluding the autonomous region)

Governorate	Number of schools			Total	Mixed (percentage)
	Boys'	Girls'	Mixed		
Ninawa	112	65	771	948	81
Salah al-Din	112	91	423	626	68
Ta'mim	57	28	474	559	85
Diyala	65	56	549	670	82
Baghdad	142	116	1 112	1 370	81
Anbar	178	163	265	606	44
Babil	35	40	352	427	82
Karbala'	65	46	138	249	55
Najaf	86	82	138	306	45
Qadisiyah	60	56	280	396	71
Muthanna	5	5	218	228	96
Dhi Qar	65	55	494	614	80
Wasit	20	10	417	447	93
Maysan	56	51	222	329	67
Basrah	125	55	346	536	66
Total 1996/97	1 183	919	6 199	8 256	75
Total 1994/95	912	693	6 453	8 958	80
Total 1995/96	993	803	6 349	8 145	78

Table 5

Secondary (intermediate and preparatory) school enrolment by sex, 1987/88-1996/97 (excluding the autonomous region after 1991/92)

Year	Boys		Girls		Total
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
1987/88	609 000	62	376 123	38	985 123
1988/89	602 334	61	379 075	39	981 409
1989/90	601 198	61	384 954	39	986 152
1990/91	624 945	61	398 765	39	1 023 710
1991/92	591 276	61	376 596	39	967 872
1992/93	606 095	61	386 522	39	992 617
1993/94	603 905	61	390 479	39	994 384
1994/95	625 692	62	383 413	38	1 009 105
1995/96	631 457	61	406 025	39	1 037 482
1996/97	678 151	62	413 580	38	1 091 731

Table 6

Boys', girls' and coeducational secondary schools, 1996, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region after 1991/92)

Governorate	Boys' schools		Girls' schools		Mixed schools		Total
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Ninawa	130	56	66	28	36	16	232
Salah al-Din	97	49	47	24	55	27	199
Ta'mim	79	57	40	29	20	14	139
Diyala	74	38	54	28	67	34	195
Baghdad	307	48	289	46	36	6	632
Anbar	99	49	55	27	47	24	201
Babil	50	32	53	34	52	34	155
Karbala'	36	43	35	42	13	15	84
Najaf	52	46	46	40	16	14	114
Qadisiyah	40	44	36	40	15	16	91
Muthanna	22	45	15	31	12	24	49
Dhi Qar	73	41	50	28	55	31	178
Wasit	45	45	36	36	18	18	99
Maysan	38	51	31	41	6	8	75
Basrah	104	42	101	40	46	18	251
Total 1996	1 246	46	954	35	494	19	2 694
Total 1994	1 213	46	937	35	508	19	2 658
Total 1995	1 218	46	946	35	511	19	2 675

Table 7

Enrolment in agricultural, industrial and commercial vocational schools by sex, 1996, with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Percentage of females
Ninawa	4 555	233	4 788	4.9
Salah al-Din	3 399	170	3 569	4.8
Ta'mim	3 504	382	3 886	9.8
Diyala	2 789	171	2 960	5.8
Baghdad	25 362	5 146	30 508	16.9
Anbar	3 358	240	3 598	6.7
Babil	4 649	457	5 106	9
Karbala'	2 696	104	2 800	3.7
Najaf	4 224	225	4 449	5.1
Qadisiyah	2 258	180	2 428	7.4
Muthanna	1 333	218	1 550	14
Dhi Qar	3 618	272	3 890	7
Wasit	2 891	239	3 130	7.6
Maysan	2 421	163	2 584	6.3
Basrah	6 242	807	7 049	11.4
Total 1996	74 772	9 006	83 778	11
Total 1994	86 073	25 740	111 813	23
Total 1995	8 917	17 488	99 405	18

Table 8

Enrolment in teacher training colleges by sex, with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

Governorate	Males	Females	Total	Percentage of females
Ninawa	854	1 257	2 111	60
Salah al-Din	166	990	1 156	86
Ta'mim	545	901	1 446	62
Diyala	614	577	1 180	48
Baghdad	1 083	2 517	3 600	70
Anbar	735	1 246	1 981	63
Babil	434	580	1 014	57
Karbala'	743	1 137	1 880	60
Najaf	706	744	1 450	51
Qadisiyah	679	633	1 312	48
Muthanna	531	523	1 054	50
Dhi Qar	1 107	873	1 980	44
Wasit	544	261	1 165	53
Maysan	466	760	1 226	62
Basrah	429	560	989	57
Total 1996	9 636	14 078	3 714	61
Total 1994	10 502	15 567	26 069	60
Total 1995	9 414	4 393	3 807	61

Table 9

Enrolment in universities and technical colleges by sex with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

University or college	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
University of Baghdad	30 217	21 362	51 579	41.4
Basrah University	9 918	8 454	18 372	46
Mosul University	12 386	5 757	18 143	31.7
Babil University	4 321	3 142	7 373	42.6
Mustansiriyah University	12 440	10 618	23 058	46
Technological University	6 539	2 008	8 547	23.5
Kufah University	2 803	3 364	6 167	54.5
Tikrit University	2 171	1 157	3 328	34.8
Anbar University	3 548	1 677	5 225	32.1
Qadisiyah University	3 263	2 552	5 815	43.9
Technical Colleges Board	55 196	15 872	71 068	22.3
Total government universities	142 712	75 963	218 675	34.7
Turath University College	1 913	982	2 895	34
Mansur University College	1 705	866	2 571	33.7
Rafidayn University College	2 564	1 297	3 861	33.6
Ma'mun University College	2 109	1 770	3 879	45.6
Baghdad School of Economics	315	246	561	43.9
Hadba' University College	470	192	662	29
Ma'arif University College	1 181	27	1 208	2.2
Yarmuk University College	168	100	268	37.3
Shatt al-Arab University College	1 353	387	1 740	22.2
Total non-government institutions	11 778	5 867	17 645	33.3
Total 1996/97	154 490	81 830	236 320	34.6
Total 1995/96	145 410	75 539	222 949	34.2
Total 1994/94	128 782	68 292	197 074	34.7

Table 10

Graduates of Iraqi universities with women as a percentage of the total, 1987/88-1995/96 (excluding the autonomous region)

Year	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
1987/88	13 715	10 764	24 479	44
1988/89	23 494	16 053	39 547	40.6
1989/90	27 458	16 227	43 685	37.2
1990/91	21 521	16 712	38 233	43.7
1991/92	19 590	17 059	36 649	46.5
1992/93	19 899	17 081	36 980	46.2
1993/94	26 382	15 867	42 249	37.6
1994/95	20 940	13 141	34 081	38.6
1995/96	19 320	13 101	32 421	40.4

Table 11

Enrolment in advanced studies, 1996/97 (excluding the autonomous region)

University	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
University of Baghdad	2 877	1 252	4 129	30.3
Basrah University	494	180	674	26.7
Mosul University	585	262	847	30.9
Babil University	108	37	145	25.5
Mustansiriyah University	645	343	988	34.7
Kufah University	151	35	186	18.8
Technological University	460	178	638	27.9
Iraq Medical Specialization Board	831	182	1 013	18
Tikrit University	59	24	83	18.9
Qadisiyah University	22	4	26	15.4
Anbar University	45	10	55	18.2
Total	6 277	2 507	8 784	28.5

Table 12

Teaching staff in elementary schools with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous area)

Governorate	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
Ninawa	3, 591	6 892	10 482	66
Salah al-Din	2 640	4 793	7 433	64
Ta'mim	1 928	5 392	7 320	74
Diyala	3 600	6 832	10 432	65
Baghdad	5 017	29 338	34 355	85
Anbar	3 102	5 140	8 242	62
Babil	2 130	6 234	9 364	67
Karbala'	1 600	3 608	5 208	69
Najaf	1 875	3 926	5 801	68
Qadisiyah	2 292	4 113	6 405	64
Muthanna	899	2 106	4 005	70
Dhi Qar	4 071	5 973	10 044	59
Wasit	2 243	4 310	6 553	66
Maysan	1 958	3 402	5 360	63
Basrah	3 112	8 061	11 173	72
Total 1996/97	41 058	100 120	141 178	71
Total 1994/95	42 510	97 437	39 947	70
Total 1995/96	42 185	103 270	145 455	71

Table 13

Teaching staff in secondary schools with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

Governorate	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
Ninawa	1 839	2 315	4 154	56
Salah al-Din	1 156	955	2 111	45
Ta'mim	1 134	1 358	2 492	54
Diyala	1 924	2 043	3 967	52
Baghdad	4 987	11 395	16 382	70
Anbar	1 642	1 086	2 728	40
Babil	2 090	2 430	4 520	54
Karbala'	810	1 050	1 860	56
Najaf	1 031	1 383	2 414	57
Qadisiyah	901	1 085	1 986	55
Muthanna	335	365	700	52
Dhi Qar	1 615	1 141	2 756	41
Wasit	1 020	1 168	2 188	53
Maysan	581	500	1 081	46
Basrah	1 993	3 032	5 025	60
Total 1996/97	23 058	31 306	4 364	58
Total 1994/95	33 626	28 802	2 428	55
Total 1995/96	22 916	29 477	2 393	57

Table 14

Teaching staff in vocational schools (agricultural, industrial and commercial) with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

Governorate	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
Ninawa	348	251	599	42
Salah al-Din	606	110	316	35
Ta'mim	255	183	438	42
Diyala	295	234	529	44
Baghdad	755	1 812	2 567	71
Anbar	259	99	358	28
Babil	2 297	352	649	54
Karbala'	175	94	269	35
Najaf	205	131	336	39
Qadisiyah	165	107	272	39
Muthanna	96	24	120	20
Dhi Qar	210	107	317	34
Wasit	274	172	446	39
Maysan	131	55	186	30
Basrah	273	247	520	48
Total 1996/97	4 944	3 978	7 922	49
Total 1994/95	4 156	4 620	8 776	51
Total 1995/96	4 020	4 491	8 511	51

Table 15

Teaching staff in teacher-training colleges with women as a percentage of the total, 1996/97, and with corresponding totals for 1994 and 1995 (excluding the autonomous region)

Governorate	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
Ninawa	65	59	124	48
Salah al-Din	20	62	72	76
Ta'mim	51	47	98	48
Diyala	43	33	76	43
Baghdad	78	84	262	70
Anbar	39	53	92	58
Babil	28	39	67	58
Karbala'	35	67	102	66
Najaf	19	39	58	67
Qadisiyah	31	35	66	53
Muthanna	24	24	48	50
Dhi Qar	51	43	94	46
Wasit	53	37	90	41
Maysan	32	227	59	46
Basrah	25	41	66	62
Total 1996/97	594	790	384	57
Total 1994/95	663	836	1 499	56
Total 1995/96	616	793	1 409	56

Table 16

Teaching staff in universities and technical colleges with women as a percentage of the total, 1987/88-1996/97 (excluding the autonomous region)

Year	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of women
1987/88	6 893	1 912	8 805	21.7
1988/89	7 381	2 077	9 458	21.9
1989/90	7 795	223	10 018	22.2
1990/91	7 959	2 338	10 297	22.7
1991/92	7 843	2 40[illegible]	[illegible]0 244	23.4
1992/93	7 813	2 473	10 286	24
1993/94	8 658	2 772	11 430	24.3
1994/95	8 735	2 914	11 649	25
1995/96	8 524	2 978	11 502	25.9
1996/97	8 590	3 154	11 744	26.9

Table 17

Number of day-care centres with enrolment and staffing by sex, 1987-1996 (excludiong the autonomous region)

Year	Number	Children enrolled			Administrative staff			Other staff		
		Girls	Total	Percentage girls	Women	Total	Percentage women	Women	Total	Percentage women
1987	226	5 027	10 292	48.8	1 501	1 501	100	664	874	76.0
1988	223	3 448	7 349	46.9	1 355	1 355	100	609	807	75.5
1989	212	4 309	9 246	46.6	1 176	1 176	100	556	759	73.3
1990	191	3 799	8 214	46.3	980	980	100	480	679	70.7
1991	184	4 065	8 462	48.0	883	883	100	363	508	71.5
1992	201	4 851	9 947	48.8	1 180	1 189	92.2	432	630	68.6
1993	201	4 737	10 228	46.3	1 122	1 136	98.8	436	624	69.9
1994	206	4 547	9 583	47.4	1 122	1 144	98.1	379	592	64.0
1995	215	4 483	9 489	47.2	1 015	1 035	98.1	520	737	70.6
1996	231	4 389	9 509	46.2	1 152	1 172	98.3	401	605	66.3

Table 18

Deaths attributable to the economic embargo by age group[a], 1990-1998, with selected causes[b]

Time period	Age group		Total
	Under-5	Over-50	
1989	7 110	20 224	27 334
1990[c]	8 903	23 561	32 464
1991	27 473	58 469	85 942
1992	46 933	76 530	123 463
1993	49 762	78 261	128 023
1994	52 905	80 776	133 681
1995	55 823	82 961	138 784
1996	56 997	83 284	140 281
1997	58 845	85 942	144 787
1998 (January-June)	32 973	45 764	78 737
Total	390 614	615 548	1 006 162

[a] The infant mortality rate was 92.7 per 1,000 live births, and the mortality rate for women of childbearing age was 117.0 per 100,000.

[b] The selected causes for the under-five age group are: acute respiratory infections; diarrhoea and intestinal infections; and malnutrition. For the over-50 age group they are: heart disease; hypertension; diabetes; kidney diseases; liver diseases; and malignant neoplasms.

[c] The total number of deaths for all age groups in the period August-December 1990, the first months of the embargo, was 12,727.

Table 19

Birthweights of less than 2.5 kilograms recorded by the health authorities during the period of the economic embargo, 1990-1998

Time period		Monthly average (percentage)
1990		4.5
1991		10.8
1992		17.6
1993		19.7
1994		21.1
1995		22.05
1996		22.6
1997		23.02
1998	January	23.5
	February	24.7
	March	23.0
	April	23.1
	May	21.3
	June	22.4

Table 20

Percentage of target groups receiving the third periodic medical visit, 1989-1996

Year	Target group		
	Newborns	Infants	Expectant mothers
1989	85.46	37.0	78.79
1990	100	100	100
1991	85.52	58.59	71.81
1992	96.98	56.62	81.47
1993	89.66	47.31	69.68
1994	80.21	43.75	66.37
1995	94.50	74.61	84.51
1996	83.03	74.77	83.75

Table 21

Monthly averages or totals for laboratory tests by type of test and as a percentage of the 1989 figures, 1989-1998

Time period		Type of test								Total	Percentage decrease since 1989
		Clinical chemistry	Bacteriology	Haematology	Blood bank tests	Serology	Cytology	Tissue crossmatching	Miscellaneous		
1989		750 258	84 022	431 736	184 444	95 331	29 605	16 362	338 293	1 494 050	
1990		259 742	55 548	363 421	99 970	40 520	1 723	3 045	267 259	1 091 230	27
1991		134 762	26 368	21 141	67 634	23 411	573	1 725	160 562	635 446	57
1992		121 316	21 773	198 786	60 514	17 892	482	1 457	167 732	589 952	60.5
1993		118 323	21 272	194 113	59 203	16 646	388	1 341	164 939	576 225	61.4
1994		108 884	19 542	178 793	54 708	15 358	358	1 233	152 527	531 384	64.4
1995		100 595	18 093	168 572	51 677	14 227	332	1 145	146 454	501 095	66.4
1996		100 383	18 055	168 215	51 568	14 197	332	1 142	146 145	500 036	66.53
1997		99 748	18 008	166 644	51 148	14 236	541	1 023	148 232	499 579	66.56
1998	January	93 680	16 869	156 984	50 025	13 249	298	1 059	134 479	466 642	68.7
	February	96 083	17 283	161 023	45 944	13 573	307	1 077	143 366	478 654	67.9
	March	105 558	18 986	166 930	51 986	15 041	351	1 201	165 050	525 143	64.8
	April	86 658	16 352	151 455	48 359	13 559	297	973	136 555	454 209	69.6
	May	96 322	17 325	161 411	49 481	13 622	304	1 022	140 308	479 795	67.8
	June	109 045	19 724	181 717	56 315	15 527	362	1 149	162 705	546 545	63.4

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Table 22

Reproductive health and family planning:

Between 1986 and 1989, the work of the Family Planning Association of Iraq focused on providing guidance and on training and advocacy in connection with family, household and women's health and the treatment of infertility through the special clinics of the Ministry of Health. In early 1989, together with the Ministry of Health and the International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF), it began to draft an integrated plan with the hope of implementing it in 1990. However, the treacherous aggression and the imposition of the unjust sanctions by the Security Council also affected the Association when the Sanctions Committee decided to require IPPF to seek approval for the items that it sent the Association, and this brought a halt to reproductive health services until 1992. The information in the following tables reflects the extent of growth between 1991 and 1997 as regards the increasing number of clinics, beneficiaries and staff trained.

22 (a) Women beneficiaries of services, 1991-1997

No.	Year	Beneficiaries
1	1991	-
2	1992	92 780
3	1993	73 497
4	1994	232 766
5	1995	355 051
6	1996	418 835
7	1997	650 052

22 (b) Staff trained, 1991-1997

No.	Year	Beneficiaries
1	1991	-
2	1992	85
3	1993	237
4	1994	420
5	1995	550
6	1996	687
7	1997	828

22 (c) Services, 1986

1986	Mine clinics	Red Crescent	Shaykh Umar	TB/Madinat Saddam	Karkh Hospital	Alawiyah Hospital	Yarmuk Hospital	Nu'man Hospital	Mosul Republican Hospital

22 (d) Number of clinics, 1991-1997

No.	Year	Number	Type						Remarks
			Advice	Specialist	People's medical	Women's Federation	Women's	Special	
1	1991	7	-	-	7	-	-	-	No services because decisions of Sanctions Committee prevented arrival of supplies.
2	1992	14	7	-	7	-	-	-	
3	1993	17	7	-	7	1	1	-	
4	1994	33	19	-	7	2	2	3	
5	1995	37	22	-	7	3	2	3	
6	1996	65	27	9	10	10	6	3	
7	1997	81	29	14	13	15	7	3	

Table 23

Total and percentage of births attended by trained personnel (physicians, midwives, nurses or others), 1987-1994

Year	Total births	Births attended by trained personnel	
		Number	Percentage
1987	471 305	349 160	74
1988	549 222	401 576	73
1989	641 791	474 476	74
1990	660 385	527 499	80
1991	482 290	398 522	83
1992	505 450	432 563	86
1993	554 138	463 087	84
1994	430 716	366 423	85

Table 24

Percentage of expectant mothers and women of childbearing age receiving tetanus toxoid vaccinations, 1987-1996

Year	Expectant mothers	Women of childbearing age
1987	53	-
1988	70	-
1989	65	-
1990	55	-
1991	45	-
1992	55	-
1993	45	-
1994	70	15
1995	71	35
1996	65	48

Table 25

Percentage of infants suffering from malnutrition: results of the nutritional survey conducted in October 1997

Type of malnutrition	Indicator	5 months		6-11 months		0-11 months	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Weight loss	Weight/age	6.3	6.7	24.4	23.6	14.5	14.7
Growth retardation	Length/age	7.1	8.8	17.9	16.4	12.0	12.4
Severe malnutrition	Weight/length	6.0	5.8	9.7	8.6	7.7	7.2
Size of sample		853	807	709	733	1 562	1 540

Table 26

Impact of the economic embargo on the nutritional situation, 1990-1998

Year		Kwashiorkor			Marasmus			Other malnutrition			All cases		
		Number	Monthly average	Index (1990=1)	Number	Monthly average	Index (1990=1)	Number	Monthly average	Index (1990=1)	Number	Monthly average	Index (1990=1)
1990		475	41	-	5 193	433	-	96 809	8 063	-	102 487	8 541	-
1991		12 796	1 066	26.3	96 186	8 015	18.5	947 974	78 998	9.8	1 056 967	88 079	10.3
1992		13 744	1 145	27.9	111 477	9 289	21.4	1 123 319	93 610	11.6	1 248 540	104 045	12.1
1993		15 128	1 261	30.8	139 346	11 612	26.8	1 235 657	102 971	12.8	1 390 131	115 844	13.6
1994		20 975	1 748	46.6	192 296	16 025	37	1 576 194	131 349	16.3	1 789 465	149 122	17.5
1995		26 984	2 249	54.8	244 023	20 335	47	1 753 355	146 113	18.1	2 034 362	168 697	19.7
1996		28 111	2 342	57.12	247 302	20 609	47.59	1 802 112	150 176	18.62	2 077 525	175 127	20.27
1997		28 475	1 373	57.88	253 483	21 123	48.78	1 850 771	154 321	19.13	2 132 729	177 727	20.81
		Number			Number			Number			Number		
1998	January	2 306		56.2	21 474		49.5	148 632		18.4	172 412		20.2
	February	3 004		73.2	21 626		49.9	118 581		14.7	143 207		16.8
	March	1 757		42.8	18 624		43.0	145 181		18.0	165 580		19.4
	April	2 093		51.0	21 714		50.1	163 579		20.2	187 386		21.9
	May	2 012		49.0	19 899		45.9	151 762		18.8	173 673		20.3
	June	2 315		56.4	21 976		50.7	180 317		22.3	204 608		23.9

Table 27

Gynaecological, obstetric, maternity and paediatric hospitals with number of beds and number of inpatients for 1995, 1996 and 1997

Type of hospital	Hospitals		Beds		Patients	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1995						
Obstetric/ gynaecological	8	4	1 183	4.05		
Maternity-paediatric	11	5.58	3 058	10.40		
Paediatric	7	3.55	1 217	4.17		
Total	26	13.2	5 458	18.70		
1996						
Obstetri/ gynaecological	7	3.5	1 055	4.57		
Maternity-paediatric	11	5.56	3 120	10.50		
Paediatric	7	3.54	1 222	4.14		
Total	25	12.63	5 397	18.28		
1997						
Obstetric/ gynaecological	7	3.5	1 018	3.45		
Maternity-paediatric	11	5.56	3 116	10.55		
Paediatric	7	3.54	1 504	5.09		
Total	25	12.63	5 638	19.09		

Table 28

Impact of the economic embargo on major surgical procedures, 1989-1998

Time period		Monthly average or total	Percentage decrease relative to 1989 figure
1989		15 125	-
1990		8 668	43
1991		6 507	57
1992		5 477	63.7
1993		5 202	65.6
1994		4 679	69.1
1995		4 492	70.3
1996		4 417	70.8
1997		4 357	71.19
1998	January	3 795	74.9
	February	4 015	73.4
	March	3 899	74.2
	April	4 536	70.0
	May	4 482	70.3
	June	5 003	66.9

Table 29

Impact of the economic embargo on the incidence of transmissible diseases in Iraq, 1989-1997

Condition	1989	1990		1991		1992		1993	
	Number	Number	Index (1989=1)	Number	Index (1989=1)	Number	Index (1989=1)	Number	Index (1989=1)
Poliomyelitis	10	56	5.6	186	18.6	120	12	75	7.5
Diphtheria	96	168	1.75	511	5.4	369	3.8	239	2.49
Pertussis	368	489	1.3	1 537	4.1	1 601	4.2	767	2.08
Measles	5 715	7 524	1.3	11 358	1.9	20 160	3.5	16 399	2.87
Rubella	514	693	1.3	2 848	5.51	1 663	3.2	928	1.8
Neonatal tetanus	42	393	9.3	936	22.2	233	5.58	171	4.1
Tetanus	32	87	2.7	933	29.1	98	3	64	2
Mumps	9 639	15 963	1.6	22 718	2.3	23 883	2.4	46 961	4.87
Cholera	0	0	0	1 217	1 217	976	976	825	825
Typhoid	1 812	2 240	1.2	17 524	9.6	19 276	10.6	22 688	12.5
Giardiasis	73 416	113 222	1.5	501 391	6.8	596 356	8.1	602 011	8.2
Amoebic dysentery	19 615	32 957	1.6	58 311	2.9	61 939	3.1	62 864	3.2
Viral hepatitis	1 816	3 228	1.7	11 135	6.1	13 766	7.5	16 801	9.2
Meningitis	2 559	1 810	0.7	5 792	2.3	4 534	1.8	3 772	1.47
Local malaria	3 428	3 924	1.11	7 105	2	5 535	1.6	4 581	1.34
Cutaneous leishmaniasis	1 829	1 894	1	8 233	4.5	8 779	4.8	7 378	4.03
Visceral leishmaniasis	491	576	1.11	3 713	7.5	3 866	7.8	3 817	7.77
Haemorrhagic fever	38	42	1.11	196	5.1	65	1.7	48	1.53
Brucellosis	2 464	2 816	1.11	13 106	5.3	14 546	5.9	14 989	6.1
Toxoplasmosis	372	512	1.3	2 223	5.9	2 745	7.3	3 145	8.45
Oedema	370	466	1	1 787	4.8	1 991	5.3	2 108	5.69
Scabies	0	198	198	1 892	1 892	7 956	7 957	10 354	10 354
Rabies	25	37	1.4	256	10.2	84	3.31	49	1.96

Condition	1989	1994		1995		1996		1997	
	Number	Number	Index (1989=1)	Number	Index (1989=1)	Number	Index (1989=1)	Number	Index (1989=1)
Poliomyelitis	10	53	5.3	32	3.2	20	2	31	3.1
Diphtheria	96	132	1.37	119	1.24	358	2.69	290	3.02
Pertussis	368	526	1.43	475	1.29	1 179	3.20	535	1.45
Measles	5 715	10 646	1.86	7 134	1.25	240	0.04	556	0.09
Rubella	514	584	1.14	338	0.66	23	0.04	17	0.03
Neonatal tetanus	42	89	2.1	64	1.52	74	1.76	73	1.74
Tetanus	32	38	1.19	31	0.97	12	0.37	25	0.78
Mumps	9 639	39 642	4.1	29 195	3.02	14 817	1.54	49 556	5.14
Cholera	0	1 345	1 345	1 216	1 216	831	831	486	486
Typhoid	1 812	24 436	13.48	26 634	14.70	16 238	8.41	14 464	7.98
Giardiasis	73 416	587 924	8.01	689 113	9.38	584 621	7.96	605 170	8.24
Amoebic dysentery	19 615	76 864	3.92	668 064	34.06	543 295	27.7	329 950	16.82
Viral hepatitis	1 816	11 296	6.22	15 557	8.57	29 803	16.41	18 591	3.62
Meningitis	2 559	3 128	1.2	2 853	1.11	691	0.27	1 202	0.47
Local malaria	3 428	19 266	5.6	59 931	17.48	32 199	9.39	9 594	2.79
Cutaneous leishmaniasis	1 829	6 662	3.6	7 703	4.21	7 606	4.16	2 939	1.61
Visceral leishmaniasis	491	2 787	5.68	3 110	6.33	3 434	6.99	794	1.62
Haemorrhagic fever	38	39	1.03	48	1.26	48	1.26	11	0.29
Brucellosis	2 464	15 476	6.28	19 040	7.73	7 531	3.06	8 911	3.62
Toxoplasmosis	372	3 899	10.48	4 640	12.47	2 768	7.44	2 960	7.96
Oedema	370	2 520	6.8	2 908	7.86	184	0.49	257	0.69
Scabies	0	13 832	13 832	18 209	18 209	39 146	39 146	40 360	40 360
Rabies	25	32	1.28	34	1.36	23	0.92	6	0.24